2: MacDonald S-4 (no date) 1946 EK1 Austria EK1

642 625 that they did not contravene existing laws.[1] Schober gave an assurance that this legislation was only intended to endow the police with such additional facilities for keeping order as no law-abiding man could take exception to.

●[871] The State Minister for Education was now given control over all matters concerning education[2]—a concession on the part of the Social Democrats.

642 635 The future position of Vienna was the subject of much bitter controversy. The Christian Socialists, seeing in its independence the key to many of the evils of post-war Austria, wished to deprive it of its provincial status, and reduce it to the position of a federal city under the direct control of the Federal Government. They maintained that it was not that Vienna was of lesser importance than the other Provinces, but that she was essentially different from them.[3] Her independent position as a Province could not, in their opinion, be reconciled with her special obligations as the capital city of the whole of Austria.[4] This, however, seemed to the Social Democrats like an attempt to have things both ways—federalism and the abolition of Viennese autonomy. But the Christian Socialists pointed out, with some truth, that the position of the Mayor of Vienna was very much stronger than that of an ordinary provincial Governor.[5] The Social Democrats argued, however, that it was ludicrous that the mayor of a city comprising two million persons should be reduced to the status of a mere *Bezirkshauptmann*, while a tiny province like Vorarlberg, comprising only 140,000 persons, should be in a position of

[1] Kelsen comments as follows on these provisions: 'Mit der Vorschrift, dass die von den Polizeibehörden zu erlassenden Verordnungen, nicht gegen bestehende Gesetze verstossen dürfen, stellt sich die Verfassung auf den Standpunkt der mehr als fragwürdigen Lehre, die zwischen Verordnungen secundum Legem, praeter Legem u. contra Legem unterscheidet.' (Op. cit., p. 143.)

[2] Article 120, (1); *Frankfurter Zeitung*, 5 December 1929.

[3] *Reichspost*, 12 October 1929.

[4] 'Der geschichtlich gewordene, legitime Länderföderalismus ist ein Wesen für sich, u. kann nicht verwechselt werden mit der Stellung der Bundeshauptstadt, die als solche besondere Verflichtungen gegenüber dem ganzen Bund, als Sitz aller zentralen Institute hat.' (*Reichspost*, 19 October 1929.)

[5] *Reichspost*, 19 October 1929.

3 Hiscocks G-4, 5 (1946-1949) 1953 EK1 Austria EK1

and its own zone. In addition, the occupation furthered the development between Austria and the Allies of the cultural diplomacy that has made such rapid progress in recent years. Leaders in this field were the French with their well-organized *Division des Affaires Culturelles* in the French Foreign Office. Its headquarters in Austria was the magnificent Lobkowitz Palace in Vienna, and a very active French Institute was also set up in Innsbruck. The British Council opened an office in Vienna towards the end of 1945, and later established branches in Graz, Klagenfurt, and Innsbruck. The Russians worked mainly through 'The Society for the Cultivation of Cultural and Economic Relations between Austria and the Soviet Union', which was started soon after the end of the War. While the Americans, though concentrating entirely on their Information Services at first, finally sent representatives of the Cultural Affairs Branch of the State Department to Austria.

The presence of foreign cultural organizations in their country stimulated the interest of Austrians in a form of diplomacy to which they are well suited by temperament and tradition. As will be seen, the French and British cultural representatives furthered the development of relations between Austria and their own countries in a wide variety of ways. But the Austrians, without any special organization of their own intended for the purpose, undertook a series of major ventures in cultural diplomacy which made a great impression in many European countries and in North America. A series of cultural conventions were also signed by the Austrian Government; with France in 1947, with Italy and Great Britain in the spring and autumn of 1952, and with Belgium early in 1953.

The damage done by the Nazis to the Austrian educational system was a most serious threat to the country's future, because the damage was spiritual as well as material. A systematic attempt had been made to pervert the minds of teachers and pupils. Fortunately its effects were modified considerably by home influence and by the anti-Nazi convictions of many

3: Hiscocks G-4, 5 (1946-1949) 1953 EK1 Austria EK1

teachers, who were obliged in varying degree to conform outwardly to a system which they inwardly rejected. Nevertheless drastic measures were necessary to ensure that post-War Austrian education would develop on healthy lines. Nazi text-books had to be destroyed and convinced Nazis rigidly excluded from the teaching body.

In 1945 Austrian schools were faced with four major problems of a material nature: shortage of accommodation due to destruction and damage; lack of text-books and other supplies; lack of teachers, and the physical condition of the pupils. In the whole of Austria, 95 schools were completely destroyed, 176 were heavily, and over 1,000 slightly damaged. In Vienna at the end of the War only 214 out of 421 school buildings were considered fit for use. In some cases at first it was necessary to give instruction in shifts to three classes a day in the same room. Even in the classrooms used there were often broken windows or damaged doors and, as fuel was scarcely obtainable, during the winter months the children, frequently ill-clad themselves, would sit and shiver through the period of instruction. The main reason for the shortage of teachers and text-books has just been given. To begin with there was also a serious shortage of such basic materials as paper, pencils, pens, and ink. It was difficult to find substitutes for the teachers who had been dismissed, because hundreds of thousands of young men were still prisoners of war. In Vienna immediately after the liberation there were only 2,400 teachers and directors available out of the total of 5,500 that were required. The physical condition of the children was a problem owing to the acute shortage of food and clothing during the immediate post-War years.

In their efforts to overcome these difficulties the Austrian authorities were both hindered and helped by the Education Divisions of the four elements of the Allied Control Commission. It was no doubt irritating to have to submit many matters for approval by the occupying Powers, and in some cases—for example the question of text-books—inter-Allied differences of opinion led to unnecessary delays. On balance,

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however, the part played by the Education Divisions was rather a help than a hindrance. They realized the vital importance of education in post-War Austria. There were problems, on which the Austrians were not always united, about which they could give valuable advice. Above all, they could offer very real assistance in obtaining the necessary materials for rebuilding and for producing the much-needed text-books.

The economic situation of the country made a quick solution of the accommodation problem impossible. By the end of 1949 it was estimated that about a quarter of the necessary funds had so far been made available and that the reconstruction programme could not be completed until 1958. However, strenuous efforts were made to relieve the serious overcrowding of 1945. By the beginning of 1952, 250 new school buildings had been erected, and many more had been repaired and re-equipped. During the following summer the new Minister of Education, Dr. Kolb, was able to express reasonable satisfaction with the progress of the primary and elementary schools, which are the responsibility of the provinces, the municipalities and the parishes, but had to admit that the condition of the secondary schools, which, like the Universities, are the financial responsibility of the State, was in some parts of the country, owing to lack of money, still very bad.

The urgent need for text-books was satisfied by emergency measures which produced impressive results. The Ministry of Education set up a 'Text-Book Commission' that worked in conjunction with the Association of School-book Publishers, the Allied Control Commission, and the Ministry of Trade, which arranged for the necessary supplies of paper and other materials. At the end of 1947, 4,212,000 copies of 118 different text-books had already been produced, and two years later 10,009,000 copies of 418 books. The centralization and standardization involved in this system have obvious disadvantages, but in the circumstances were justified by success.

The shortage of teachers was met in 1946 by employing students in their final year at teachers' training colleges as

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assistants. Subsequently the situation improved, as an increasing number of returned prisoners of war became available and some relaxation was allowed in the law excluding all former National Socialists from teaching.

The shortage of food was so general that the educational authorities were not in a position to make special arrangements for school-children, but, as has been seen, much was done for them by Swedish, Danish, and Swiss voluntary relief organizations. During the winters that immediately followed the War it was only possible to heat a proportion of the schools, the 'winter schools', as they came to be called; and then the already large classes doubled up or the shift system was intensified. The acute fuel shortage at the beginning of 1947 led to so-called 'coal holidays'.

The Allied cultural and educational organizations played an important part in breaking down the intellectual isolation from which the teachers had suffered so long and of which the best of them were acutely conscious. The French and British ran summer schools for teachers in Austria each year, which were also attended by teachers from France and England; and visits for Austrian teachers were arranged to England, France, Switzerland, and the United States. A limited number of Austrian school-children were also enabled to travel abroad. With the active co-operation of foreign countries, the Austrian Ministry of Education revived some of the schemes for exchanging teachers which had been in operation before the *Anschluss*.

Education is one of the subjects on which there are strongly felt differences between the People's Party and the Socialists. Since the War the differences have been accentuated by the fact that for more than five years Dr. Hurdes, the Minister of Education, was also General Secretary of the People's Party, and by the fact that the Vienna School Board was under Socialist control. The main subjects of difference are religious instruction, private schools, and the best method by which a ninth year could be added to the period of compulsory schooling. There is agreement on the principle of extending the

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period of schooling, but party conflict prevents the necessary law being passed.

In spite of this impasse, a great deal has been accomplished in Austrian schools since the War under most difficult conditions. Both parties have been agreed on the validity of three guiding principles which were to be emphasized in the new educational era, according to a directive issued in September 1945: Austrian patriotism (*Volks- und Staatsbewußtsein*), democracy, and humanity. Their experiences between 1938 and 1945 have brought home to Austrians the value of the first two principles more clearly than ever before. The third is deeply embedded in the Austrian nature and tradition.

Austria's three universities and her other institutions of higher learning suffered some material damage during the War, especially the University of Vienna and the Technical Institutes at Vienna and Graz. Their work after the War was also severely hampered by the shortage of fuel and food. But the most serious problems that faced them were lack of staff and lack of money.

Some of Austria's finest scholars had gone into exile during the German occupation. Of those that remained many of the younger had been called up for military service, and a number of the ablest and most influential were excluded from teaching as incriminated Nazis. Germans, who had been appointed to Austrian universities under Hitler, returned to Germany. Some of the gaps could be filled by bringing back professors who had been forced into retirement by the Nazis and had remained in Austria. But there were still many vacancies for which it was very difficult to find the right men. The younger generation of university teachers had suffered severely from the War, and it was rarely possible to persuade Austrian exiles, who had settled down happily in other countries, to return to Austria under the prevailing economic and political conditions and at the low salaries that were offered. For more than two years after the War, Vienna University was even unable to fill its chair of English.

Lack of funds not only kept down salary scales; it made it

About the middle of the 18th century, 53 Jesuit colleges and settlements existed in the Jesuit "Province" of Austria, in addition to a number of resident and travelling missions. In almost all these 53 centres there were middle-schools and at almost all of them plays were produced, between two and three in a year, unless school, as was often the case in Hungary, had to be broken up on account of the dreaded plague or of danger from the Turks. These usually scattered the pupils to the four winds.

The growth of the Jesuit Theatre continued from 1558 to 1773 in two major stages. During the first, which lasted until about 1650, the main objective was the inculcation of the Faith; during the second period, education played the greater role. The Jesuit Theatre took over from the mediaeval theatre the pattern of the ecclesiastical year, culminating in the festivals of Christmas and Easter. It also adopted the traditions of the "school-theatre". The Order of Jesuits was not alone in introducing its pupils to the stage, but no other Order did so on such a scale, with such perseverance and with such remarkable results.

To appreciate the significance of the Jesuit Theatre, one must remember that with its amateur actors, it was a means to an end and not, like the professional theatre, an end in itself.

The first stage performance in Vienna was given in 1555. The Jesuits had made barely habitable the building of the Carmelite Monastery, which during the recent years when it had been left almost unoccupied had become a ruin, and had just established their schools there. They repeated their performances every year, increasing their number. Scenery and costumes were added. By the second half of the 17th century the productions easily bore comparison with the elaborate set-up of those at the Imperial Court Theatre. The stage-struck Leopold I was the most enthusiastic patron, and at the end of the performance he distributed prizes to those pupils who had most distinguished themselves.

There were primarily three occasions in the year on which plays were regularly produced. On Good Friday, a play with religious content was put on, corresponding to the mediaeval Good Friday drama in St. Stephen's Cathedral, which was kept up until the 19th century. On the second occasion, that of Corpus Christi, the performance was closely linked with the religious procession from altar to altar which from time immemorial had been carried out with great pomp in Vienna. The play then performed also had mediaeval characteristics. The religious story was divided into acts which were produced in turn before one or other of the street altars at which the Corpus Christi procession halted. In 1579, for example, the "Tragic Story of the Prodigal Son" was produced. Two acts were played before the High Altar, and another act before each of the other three altars at which the procession halted. The third regular date when plays were produced was the occasion of the distribution of prizes at the end of the school year, usually in September, which was turned into an impressive theatrical spectacle, with elaborate scenery.

793 were also made use of, at first in connection with religious stories; subsequently
536 we find stories taken from history, especially after the beginning of historical studies early in the 18th century. From the rulers of antiquity by way of the ancient German and Lombard kings up to the reigning House of Hapsburg, all with high rank or well-known names which might serve either as an example or a warning to youth were brought into these plays. It is noteworthy that a number of subjects reappeared in the literature of subsequent decades, especially in the period of classicism. In the Jesuit Theatre we find, to mention only a few examples, a forerunner of Schiller's "The Robbers", as well as of the "Iphigenie" of Goethe and Körners' "Zriny". Thus the Jesuit Theatre was of value in preparing the way for the literature of later times, as well as because it was in itself the most comprehensive theatre organisation known to history. Far and wide it cleared the ground for the professional stage by making the cultured classes acquainted with the theatre from their earliest youth. In many towns of the Jesuit "Province" of Austria—for example in Hungary—it was
[517] the immediate forerunner of the professional theatre. The value of this Jesuit Theatre lay not so much in the grandiose stage presentation at some particular place such as Vienna or Graz, nor in the literary value of the works of such a man as Avancinus, but rather in its achievements for the general development of culture. Its mission once fulfilled, it faded away.

793 With Rousseau's "Age of Enlightenment" there began a conflict about
● 871 the Jesuit schools which for two centuries had supplied the Emperor
815 with his leading statesmen and to which the Counter-Reformation in Austria owed its success. The main argument against them was that they were in themselves reactionary and their methods old-fashioned. Yet it was just the Jesuit schools which in the first half of the 18th century proved themselves to be thoroughly progressive, for it was they who introduced the teaching of history and encouraged study of the natural sciences. In Vienna they founded a "*Museum Mathematicum*", the first institute of its kind in Austria and a precursor of the modern museums, and pursued definite educational aims through its collection of physical and astronomical instruments. The Jesuits were also the first in this part of the world to make serious experiments in physics and chemistry and to demonstrate them in public. The Emperor Franz, Consort of Maria Theresia, even called the Brothers to Schönbrunn Palace to make such demonstrations.

Until the latter half of the 18th century the students in the Jesuit schools of the Austrian Province numbered more than 16,000 and although thereafter their numbers began to decrease slowly, the abolition of the Order put an end to an educational system which was still flourishing.

793 The final performance at the theatre in the Bäckerstrasse was given in the year 1760
873 by the sixth class, that of rhetoric, which acted "Menaeus"—actually the last play
545 produced by the Jesuit Theatre in Vienna. The beauty of the play, the acting of

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of local feudal lords, special privileges which ensured it unusual opportunities for development.

The picture of a mediaeval townlet which Feldkirch presents today is furnished mainly by the streets of the inner town, consisting of solid and impressive buildings in which merchants have carried on their affairs for many generations. Such evidence as survives of former defensive constructions like the Churer Tor, the Katzenturm and Schattenburg Castle, which towers over the town, conjure up visions of scenes long past to attract a stranger's attention.

361 871 Feldkirch was called "Studierstädtlein" in bygone days when it was of great importance—one might almost say of unparalleled importance—in educational affairs. It had a grammar school, a college for teachers which attracted students from all over the country, and the famous Jesuit college "Stella Matutina", well-known throughout Europe.

361 635 It could with almost equal justice have been called the "Township of Bureaucrats", although it was never a centre of government. But the majority of the other administrative bodies of the province are established in Feldkirch. The cosmopolitan character of the bureaucracy of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy has affected the racial composition of the local population.

361 498 Feldkirch, as a junction on the only direct East-West route, is of importance to the Austrian traffic system. It is the main railway station on the frontiers of Austria with Switzerland and Liechtenstein, and thus a connecting-link in the West European transport organization.

133 DO YOU KNOW THE LEGEND OF THE THREE SISTERS? No? Then wander from Feldkirch through the Ill Ravine, the "Felsenau", that deep channel which the river has for centuries been cutting through the imprisoning rocks and which is still so narrow that there is only just room for the railway leading to the Walgau to run beside it. A feat of engineering was called for to carry the road over river and railway on a precarious bridge. Once one emerges from this narrow gorge, the character of the countryside is seen to have completely changed. Even the air is cooler, and the natives say that east of the Felsenau (i. e. in Walgau) it is "a jacket cooler" than in the Rhine Valley. You walk all